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Facets of County Planning

I. On Using Democracy

by M. L. WILSON

THIS is a solemn, serious moment in the world's history.

War clouds hang low, shadowing the lives of millions of people; the principle of tolerance that we in this country had come almost to take for granted is violated daily elsewhere; our Government is concerned from day to day with the promotion of military as well as trade peace.

All of us know that democracy, which first flowered fully in this country of all countries on earth, is being challenged by contesting theories of life and theories of government. Then, too, we have difficulties enough at home. They are inescapably present to our view. Unemployment and poverty exist in the midst of abundance: A contrast too sharp for any of us to ignore even if we would.

Yet I am hopeful. As I see it, these pressures should not force us into defeatist attitudes. I believe they offer as much of hope as they do of gloom. For I have a strong faith that this challenge to democracy from the outside, as well as the challenge to democracy on the inside, will bring

about a great renaissance of democracy in this country. Who knows but that it will usher in a time when the people will search their souls for the deeper, more fundamental philosophical meanings of democracy to individuals, to families, to groups, and to the Nation, when people will invent new adaptations of the democratic process and give new expression to democracy in government and community life? The best way to save democracy is to use it.

Lares and Penates of Democracy

We who are concerned most of our waking hours with farmers sometimes tend to forget that in this scientific, industrial age in which we live we must have cities, must have professions, must have workingmen, labor unions, and great groups of people who are not farmers. Yet, Thomas Jefferson thought that democracy was a peculiar product of the soil, of land-owning farmers, and of a rural society. And many of us still have a good deal of the old belief that the gods of democracy—if there are such gods in the sense that the Greeks used to think there were—reside in country communities and hover above the life of the farm. Sometimes I think, too, that we tend to overbalance the economic side of the scales, to weight it too heavily against the other side in which reside the values and things that make life attractive, secure, and worthwhile.

We know and the farmers know that they cannot afford to rest on their laurels. Now that organized agriculture has won the critical battle of February 1938 when the present farm program was at stake, and machinery has been set up through which farmers may work together toward parity income, we must, of course, defend that right. But we must go ahead on another front. We must battle for a renaissance of democracy and for new democratic patterns in farm life and in the rural community. Our national farm program covers many things. We must work out ways of adapting it to the widely varied agricultural conditions of the country—to changes which science is bringing about among producing farmers and city consumers, and to changes in ways of using the land consistent with the principle of conservation. We must improve present institutions and perhaps develop new institutions for cooperative marketing and buying, for educational advantages for our children, for adult education for ourselves, and for building more constructive recreation, more culture and beauty into our lives.

Department Changes and a County's Policy

If we are to win these for ourselves and our children, a lot of planning, a lot of foresight, a lot of thinking will be required. The Secretary of Agriculture has thought deeply upon this subject and has brought about a fundamental reorganization in the structure of the Department of Agriculture. He has sought to improve the administration of the Department as a whole and to develop the new planning function in a democratic

manner, opening the way for the cooperative participation of farm people, of country leaders, of the State colleges and the Extension Service, and of the various national agencies which operate under authority from Congress.

An efficient, harmonious, and sensible program in each agricultural county of the United States is the goal of this new planning structure, built jointly with the Land Grant College Association. The program in the county in which a farmer lives will be his program, and it will be up to him to help plan it out and make it work. I know each of them will do his part.

The work in planning has a counterpart almost as basic, almost as fundamental, as the planning itself. This is the development of discussion groups for the study by farming people of the problems of the day. County farm organizations are to be congratulated for the beginnings they have made in this field. With their extension workers, their local leaders, and their agricultural teachers in the high schools, they are promoting discussion groups of five, ten, or fifteen families. These groups meet regularly to study, to think over, and to discuss together all angles of the grave questions which the nation is facing.

And why are these forums so important?

A great democratic movement is under way in this country. We who want to dedicate ourselves to that movement are eager to understand its nature. The farming people of America are part of that movement because it was born among them. Farm organizations are part of it, as are all the employees of the Department of Agriculture. The Secretary of Agriculture is part of it. Planning and discussion are very close to the heart of that movement.

Equal Justice Under Economic Law

This democratic movement has its economic side and its cultural side. We must fight to keep a farm program for economic security that now and in the future will give farmers their fair share of the national income. True democracy must protect our economic rights as well as our political liberties. There can be no secure basis for democracy among poverty-stricken people farming on exhausted soil. On its economic side, the new democratic movement must seek to give farmers a satisfactory living, the physical comforts of life, and a fair share of the abundance that they produce for the nation.

But to provide a strong and secure basis for a lasting civilization the new democratic movement must also have a deeply ingrained cultural side. It must be founded not on propaganda nor on regimentation, but on the steady growth of real understanding among the people, and on real participation by them in discussion and planning and in the execution of policies that affect all our lives. True democracy must rest on tolerance and honest thinking. Informed public opinion, based upon growing knowledge and courageous facing of facts, is the only safe foundation for

democracy. Dictators can give orders, but in a democracy the final decision rests with the people.

Democracy Does Not Thrive on Bread Alone

A precious part of this democracy is that it will open up to more of us riches which for too long have been open only to a limited number of the more fortunate among us. Many of the great fields of utility and knowledge afforded by the sciences and the arts can now become fields of adventure and enjoyment for the many where once they were closed to all except a few. More and more of us can know the finer side of life that will come with that freedom from grinding toil democracy can bring. As parents and heads of families more of us can know the satisfaction that will come with the growth of education and opportunity and understanding among our children. More and more of us can feel that democracy has brought release from a bitter struggle for existence, and has given us enjoyment of the deeper meanings of life, which include a sense of usefulness and service to our fellow man.

We are all parts of the great democratic movement which, despite counter current in other parts of the world, is surely under way here in our country. Each of us may well resolve to do his part to make this movement go forward toward its goal. We may well resolve to accept the challenge to democracy that our day has brought.

II. Circles of Influence

by BUSHROD W. ALLIN

THROUGHOUT the country this year thousands of farmers are gathering with technical advisers afforded them by Federal and State Governments, to continue an experiment in economic democracy that many of us believe is fraught with the greatest consequence to our country. If county planning succeeds—and we who have watched it from its tentative beginnings have no doubt whatever that it will succeed—then that success will be another proof that democracy is as flexible as the changing conditions of the modern world. This is not to say that we expect some new ideal institution to spring up overnight, that a miniature Plato's Republic or More's Utopia suddenly will come into being in every agricultural county in the United States simply because county planning is being practiced upon a Nation-wide scale. Far from it. We know that, just because this is democracy at work, there will be a great deal of fumbling for the right ways, many necessary compromises of viewpoint, much changing of ways to goals and perhaps even of the goals themselves.

But it is for this very reason that we look with confidence to the outcome of this year's councils. And as these farmers gather to consider what their county needs, and how these needs may be met, there are a few points that should be stressed, for their timeliness if for nothing else. For purposes of discussion, let us look at this year's work as in part devoted to the starting of a long-time plan for each county where work is in progress and at the same time as a powerful effort to hit upon and to bring about the best adjustment that can be made now, subject to the many practical demands and limitations that reality will impose upon the ideal plan. Of course, the work of the county and community committees will be an organic planning process. Hence, when we say that county mapping, the classifying of a county's land, is part of the long-time planning effort of the farmers in that county, we do not thereby minimize the importance of land classification in any adjustment, whether immediate or at some future time. Indeed, such classification is fundamental to any kind of planning for agriculture.

The Fundamentals of a County Program

When a good job of mapping a county's land resources is done, an indispensable step has been taken toward a permanent program for the county. Thus the singular importance of wide and interested participation by the farm population in the mapping project that has been laid out for the year. Land resources are one of the determinants of future agricultural adjustment, just as they are fundamental to any genuine understanding of existing maladjustments. It cannot be emphasized too much that while competent mapping, rooted in the knowledge of farm folks, provides a basis for many of the changes that can be made now, such work is a process that is never finished. Unless mapping is an authentic product of the aggressive interest of farmers themselves, any campaign for a permanent betterment of agriculture is likely to break down. Moreover, "If this system of coordinated land use planning is to endure," said the agreement signed at Mount Weather, Va., last summer by the Department of Agriculture and land-grant college committees, "farmers must see tangible results from their work."

Farmers are planners by nature. They are accustomed to looking ahead and patience is more than a superficial trait with most of them. Nevertheless, they have an understandable desire to see results from their planning while they are still able to enjoy some of its fruits. Hence, we must prepare now for application of the plans that farmers are drawing.

Harmonizing the Instruments of Action

Confronted with the limitations imposed by the laws authorizing its action programs and with those imposed by restricted personnel and funds, the Department has decided that the best way to go about translating

farmer proposals into action is to begin in selected counties in each State. In such counties will be tested the existing action programs of the Department in relation to the actual needs of that county and the recommendations drafted by its farmers. The object of this year's work in each of these counties is the formulation by the farmers of a unified program into which every action program of the Department will fit so as to form a harmonious whole.

Obviously, such programs will vary widely from county to county. In many counties there will be difficulty in deciding just which of several courses offers the best hope. And in many instances, practical barriers will force some deviation from what is generally agreed upon as the best course to pursue, ideally. All of the action agencies of the Department will cooperate with the land-grant colleges and the farmers, and all of them will do everything possible to adjust such portions of their programs as may be inconsistent with the county program agreed upon.

The widest possible discretion that the law permits is to be given local committees of farmers, both in planning and administering these programs. Their interest should be the more readily enlisted when it becomes clear that their recommendations really form a basis of action. The primary purpose of such experimental counties is to make the action agencies into flexible, potent instruments for use of the farmers. In other words, the purpose is to find out from experience what changes are indicated in policies and authorizations. Investigation already has shown that a great deal can be accomplished within our existing legal framework toward unifying Department activities and making them a single tool in the hands of farmers.

A Flexible Program for a Complex Problem

It goes without saying that the development of such a program involves a grave responsibility and that it will be a job requiring the best judgment that can be brought to bear. The facts that must be considered are many and complex. There is the question of changes in the way land is being used in each county and in subareas of each county, and along with that question a host of others: Changes in acreage of specific crops, number of livestock, and in farming practices; changes in size and organization of individual farms; changes in tenure arrangements and credit facilities. Is public purchase of land a necessity to the proposed adjustment? Are there group attitudes and folkways that may hamper the plan for revisions? Lastly, what will be the effect on the welfare of the county people if the plan is put into effect?

In the decision of these issues, the Department hopes local people will take the lead, not because of a desire to shift responsibility, but in the profound conviction that only through their knowledge and their interest can changes in present patterns be made appropriately. From start to finish, they are to share in the work. Choice of the counties for this work

is to be made in cooperation with the land-grant colleges and the local people. Whenever Department personnel or material can be useful, it will be available, and the Department expects to work closely with farmers throughout the planning and application of such programs.

Circles of Influence from Selected Counties

In the selection of the counties, an area or subarea is to be chosen, when possible, where there is a genuine problem in the use of land. Another characteristic that should enter into choice of counties is the extent to which they represent wider areas. In other words, the extent of usefulness of the results of the work will depend upon the extent to which the programs worked out in them can be applied elsewhere. The results achieved in them, therefore, will be the more influential the more representative such counties are of wider areas. Clearly, too, at least one such special program should be applied in each of the major agricultural areas of the country. The most important factor that should be considered in selecting counties is the degree of local interest in the work. Preference certainly should be given to those where there is an active interest and where farmers will take the initiative in developing and administering the program.

There are various methods whereby a program may be developed, but it is of the greatest importance that farmer opinion has been incorporated. It is the spirit of democratic participation, rather than the precise means of participation, that is significant. If the program is to endure, it must be one that a distinct majority of farmers in the county approves.

Time also is important. I have emphasized earlier here the fact that farmers are not anxious to plan for the sake of planning. They must see some tangible results within the near future, if county planning is to be a vital, continuing institution. Therefore, at least some of the planning recommendations should be put into effect in 1940. It is especially desirable that such proposals be ready for approval by mid-summer in those parts of the country where fall-planted crops are grown. This will call for a great deal of hard work and hard thinking. It is a challenge that, I am confident, will be accepted.

Federal School Aids: A Tool for Social Adjustment?

by V. WEBSTER JOHNSON

IN RECENT sessions of Congress there has been a noteworthy increase in the support accorded to proposals for Federal action to strengthen the American educational system, notably the common school. The movement has attained such strength as to render desirable an examination of the possible effect of such legislation on use of land and of means whereby such Federal expenditures could be made, so as to give the people the greatest value for their money.

Federal assistance to the States for educational purposes, as such, is by no means a new departure. Following a policy established by the colonies, the Federal Government began shortly after its formation to grant land for the support of the schools. In the ordinance of 1787 and other similar early lands acts and grants, is the beginning of a national policy for the promotion of education. Through this legislation the Government has granted more than 100,000,000 acres of land for educational purposes. Since the Civil War a number of acts, such as the Morrill-Nelson, Smith-Hughes, Smith-Lever, and others, have provided for granting money to the States for education. The methods by which the Federal Government has stimulated certain types of education and the results obtained under these acts are well known. Recent proposed legislation for Federal assistance to the common school is an extension of the philosophy embodied in these earlier acts.

A few facts will illustrate the conditions that have inspired the sponsors of this legislation. The appalling differences in educational opportunities in different sections of the United States are the result largely of varying economic conditions in the States. The Advisory Committee on Education appointed by President Roosevelt on April 19, 1937, found that in 8 States more than 100 percent of the tax income available under a model tax system, assuming that these States could put their fiscal houses in order, would be required to support schools of the minimum acceptable standard. Although 13 percent of the children of school age live in the Southeastern States, their parents receive only about 2 percent of the national income. Furthermore, approximately 2,740,000 children of school age in the United States are not attending school, because of lack of facilities, and another 2,745,000 are attending school in temporary structures. The Advisory Committee on Education reports that the least satisfactory schools in the United States usually are to be found in rural areas.

Where 80 Percent of \$21,000,000 Goes

Most of the States have provided for some equalization of public-school costs within the limits of their economic ability. Although these grants

in aid have been most helpful, the problem is far from being solved. Between 1933 and 1935 it was necessary for the Federal Government to grant more than \$21,000,000 to keep rural schools open and more than 80 percent of this amount was needed in the South, where local and State governments were unable to carry the burden.

Educational needs are more acute in the South than elsewhere, because poverty is more widespread. A large part of the population is tied to worn-out and washed-up land, without even moderately satisfactory economic status, and with limited alternative opportunities to better their circumstances. Many of the white schools are extremely poverty-ridden and inadequate, and the colored schools are in even worse status. A large percentage of colored pupils never get beyond the second grade, and an average annual cost of \$5 per pupil, or less, is not uncommon. Under such conditions, there is no alternative to poverty and ignorance, and to accompanying social and economic ills.

An uneducated child is no more an asset in a rural community than he would be in a city. And it should be remembered, too, that the rural areas are "feeders" for maintenance and growth of our urban populations. The high degree of mobility of our population between and within the States is indicated by the fact that about 20 percent of the persons born in the United States are now living in States other than those of their birth. Illiteracy, poor training, and limited opportunities to make social and economic adjustments generally follow migratory people who have had little or no schooling; unfortunately, many people in such circumstances are from, or live in, rural areas.

Yet the farm population bears a heavier educational load in terms of the number of children to be educated and in terms of the tax burden than does the nonfarm population. The size of the educational task and the inequalities in economic ability among the States and between different parts of them, mean that, unless some method of Federal equalization of school costs is adopted, many of the common schools must continue to try to operate under deplorable conditions. State equalization of educational costs has not solved the problem of existing disparities. So reason the supporters of such bills as those in recent Congresses, which proposed to authorize appropriations for Federal aid in support of the public schools of the States.

School's-Eye View of Land Use

How, then, are these conditions related to problems of land use? In many parts of the United States settlement of poor land in sparsely settled areas has resulted in unsatisfactory returns from the land, low standards of living, additional costs on good land, and, frequently, abandonment of land after years of unfruitful effort and loss of savings. Occasionally, settlers have studiously sought isolated locations in order to add to their

income through State and local grants-in-aid for schools and roads. Under such circumstances, the spending of public funds has been occasioned beyond ordinary requirements and under conditions that prevent their effective use. In the end, both the settlers and the State are the losers. Furthermore, grants in aid for schools under these conditions may work at cross-purposes with other measures designed to alleviate human hardships, poverty, isolation, excessive costs of public services, and misuse of land resources in areas where betterment is being sought.

As far as land use planning is concerned, especially as it relates to formulation and execution of action programs and policies in poorer land areas, one very important essential is to lift the educational opportunities and achievements of depressed rural people. If measures to improve use of land are to be successful, they must be preceded and accompanied at every step by a program of education, the aim of which would be: (1) To assist rural families to adapt themselves more adequately to situations arising in a changing social and economic environment; (2) to familiarize landowners and operators with objectives of the land program and to facilitate constructive adjustments; and (3) to relieve, over a period of years, maladjustments of the people to the land by facilitating desirable migration.

Education and a Lower Birth Rate

In a paper dealing with farm tenancy, Dr. H. C. Taylor recently said: "The starting point in solving the tenancy problem is better rural schools. Better elementary and secondary education will prepare youth for a wider choice of occupations and, in a measure, reduce the excessive competition of farmer with farmer, which enhances rents and land values at the expense of operator incomes. Increased education for rural youth will not only facilitate the flow of surplus farm population into other occupations, but will also put farming on a more intelligent basis. Furthermore, more education will tend to reduce the birth rate in congested rural areas, in the interest of higher living standards. It has been said that nothing would do more to reduce the high birth rate in certain congested agricultural regions than to give every farm girl the opportunity for a high-school education."

Many similar statements appear in current agricultural literature.

The rural educational system is faced with two major problems. One is the provision of adequate general educational facilities. The second is the establishment of appropriate systems of, and facilities for, the training of adults and children of disadvantaged farm families.

Although there is a real need for more schools and better educational systems in many rural areas, it is also true that the granting of Federal aid for schools, if not properly safeguarded, could result in encouraging undesirable land use practices. A few hundred dollars of State or Federal school aid to people living in impoverished areas may be sufficient financial

incentive for them to remain. Yet such expenditures may be socially and economically unsound and should be diverted to other areas, if possible, or at least minimized. It has proved difficult in practice, when grants in aid are made, to prevent others than the teacher from receiving financial benefit, directly or indirectly. The problem is one of providing assistance for the support and maintenance of desirable public educational services, without subsidizing submarginal land areas and obsolete units of local government. Aids granted in excess of the need to maintain educational service necessary in the interest of the public welfare are, in fact, a type of relief grant or subsidy that should be discouraged. For the time being, however, such relief may be necessary. It would be unfair, obviously, to curtail aids drastically, or even to impair them under certain conditions, in order to hasten land use adjustments. This is true because people on the land have acquired a vested interest in land, buildings, and other appurtenances. Also, acceptable and suitable alternative opportunities for people must be provided if flexibility in grants is to be practiced within States to encourage abandonment of unprofitable land.

The Goal of Equal Opportunity

For the Federal Government to embark upon a program of turning over money to the States for the public schools without any control or standards set up for its distribution within the States would appear to be unwise. Few of those who advocate Federal aid would agree, however, that any interference with local control of the common schools is desirable. Most of them would insist that initiative and responsibility in the conduct of education be left with the States and their political subdivisions. Nevertheless, it may with reason be suggested that if the Federal Government cooperates with the States in assisting in the support of the common schools, certain safeguards should be set up, by which an equitable procedure may be developed for granting funds, so that every child will have equal access to the benefits of such expenditures, provided assistance is needed.

It also is reasonable to suggest that sufficient flexibility be provided in the distribution of funds to encourage and not to hinder desirable social and economic adjustments. It is very difficult to obtain support for—and even if that be obtained, to manage—any administrative device that would allow for flexibility in the distribution of school aids within the States. Yet, if such a policy were followed by the States, instead of rule-of-thumb methods, aid, whether distributed from State or Federal sources, could be used more effectively as a means of implementing poorer land areas, of encouraging better agricultural practices on good land, and to increase the enjoyment, the happiness, and the opportunity of rural people. Likewise, it is true that such a policy would give more and better schooling per dollar to rural children, and would make easier the achievement of the objectives of this legislation.

Farmer Conservationists

by IRA N. GABRIELSON

THE purposes for which lands are used have an important bearing on the welfare of the resident wildlife. Estimates indicate that in 1935 more than 55 percent of the land area of the United States was in private farms. In addition, agricultural interests lease or otherwise control so much of the remainder that economists estimate that at least 85 percent of the land is devoted to farming, grazing, and other agricultural uses.

That the pioneer stages of agricultural development materially improved the habitat for many forms of wildlife is conceded generally by students. Today, while it is true that some species have been crowded out by the diversion of their former range for agricultural purposes, it is equally true that modern use of the land has created homes suitable for other species, some of them new, and has extended the habitable range of numerous birds and mammals. It is self-evident that various forms of wildlife, as for example the bobwhite and the cottontail, thrive under conditions associated with farming. In fact, some species, as the ring-necked pheasant and the Hungarian partridge, will survive only on lands managed for agriculture.

The future of wildlife in this country depends largely on the treatment accorded it by the farmers. The Federal Government, through many of its agencies, in recent years has begun to take cognizance of the wildlife resources of America. Progress has been made in establishing wildlife refuges and improving the habitat for wild birds and mammals. Yet all that has been done in the past by governmental agencies, or can be done in the future, in providing homes for certain types of wildlife is relatively inconsequential as compared with the quality and quantity of habitat provided by farmers and ranchers. State and Federal Governments cannot acquire sufficient land areas to assure general conservation of wildlife, or its continued availability for public enjoyment and use.

The Farmer as Lover of Nature

The farmer's interest in wildlife is understandable when it is realized that the agriculturist, more than any other, both suffers and benefits from the presence of wildlife. The history of wildlife in America discloses few instances in which farmers have seriously depleted a species. Men of the soil do not wantonly destroy the native fauna, but often have an inherent love for nature. To the ranchers of the West considerable credit is due for preservation of the deer and antelope herds. Not so long ago, deer and wild turkeys had almost completely disappeared in some sections, but

today, owing to the efforts of ranchers, they again have become important game animals in many of these areas. Bobwhite quail have been encouraged almost universally by farmers, with the result that this species not only has been maintained in its original range, but also is now abundant in areas 2,000 miles away.

In the past the farmers' contribution to the welfare of wildlife was largely incidental, but today there is a decided trend toward organized and directed conservation by farming interests. This movement is exemplified by the large number of voluntary conservation, or protective, associations which have been sponsored by farmers throughout the United States. Corresponding organizations exist in some form in virtually every State. Although they have the same underlying motive, probably no two are exactly alike in conception, administration, or purpose. This may seem illogical, but it must be remembered that circumstances vary with every locality and every different combination of individuals. It might be possible, at great expense and with a great deal of work, to bring these programs into closer harmony, but it is questionable whether this would be wise. The many factors involved do not lend themselves to regimentation, and the necessity of programs adjustable to changing conditions naturally calls for wide variations in detail.

Minimizing the Profit Motive

Much publicity has been given to a limited number of so-called farmer-sportsman cooperatives. The publicity has frequently been sponsored by sporting interests, but, as many projects are not truly cooperative, the promised benefits and profits for the farmers have failed to materialize. Nevertheless, a considerable number of these ventures, although not publicized, have proved successful so far as the farmer is concerned. Such associations, when sponsored by farmers, are most frequently formed either to control the hunter-trespass nuisance or to preserve the wildlife on their property, or both. Seldom do farmers sponsor such groups with the idea of monetary profit, for they recognize probably more clearly than many experts the limitations of nature and man and, therefore, the improbability of their being able to realize any considerable cash return. There are, of course, exceptions both as to opportunities and individuals. Perhaps the best explanation of the farmers' apparent lack of interest in cash return from wildlife is the fact that, as a group, farmers are inherently generous and sociable. In past generations the privilege of hunting and fishing on their property was something that farmers extended gratuitously to friends and neighbors. Now, even under greatly changed conditions, they are reluctant to adopt a different attitude. Most farmers prefer the satisfaction of giving others the pleasure of hunting on their lands to the small amount of cash they could realize by a fee system. Careful analysis

of returns from the paid-shooting areas sponsored by farmers has demonstrated that the revenue thus derived, except in isolated instances, seldom exceeds by any considerable amount the cost of operation.

The Need for Help to Farmer Groups

It is regrettable that agencies vitally interested in the conservation of wildlife cannot offer the more concrete and specific help that, it is realized, is due the ever-increasing number of farmer conservation groups.

Any program to protect wildlife and to provide for its more orderly or proper use should be encouraged and fostered by all individuals or groups interested in conservation. These ideals have, in general, characterized the voluntary efforts of farmers. Farm game-management projects frequently limit kills, so that adequate seed stock remains in the coverts, and they tend to improve food and cover conditions. The regulation of hunting—probably the principal objective—proves advantageous to both farmer and game, and this, in turn, benefits the sportsman.

Despite claims that farmers can derive considerable cash income from production of wildlife and sale of hunting privileges, the net profits under present practices seldom amount to any worthwhile sum. The present attitudes of both farmers and hunters (the latter having little or no inclination to pay for the cost of producing the game they take) make it difficult to organize a paid-shooting relationship on any adequate basis. Although attitudes are changing, the general acceptance of the practice is still somewhat in the future.

Profits on Hunting Privileges

Profitable marketing of shooting privileges involves a number of factors. In ordinary business transactions there must be something to sell and someone to buy, but the sale of hunting privileges is decidedly influenced by another factor, namely, that hunting is a luxury, the sale price of which depends entirely upon what the trade will pay. Prices on luxury products, moreover, are exceptionally unstable. The supply of manufactured luxuries is controllable and when the demand will not more than repay the cost of producing, production is stopped. The yield of wildlife, however, is not so easily controlled, for a great deal of it is incidental to regular farm management. The harvest from a given area may include, and usually does, game that has been born and reared on another's property, possibly at a distance. Where opportunities to hunt are scarce, and demand is great and production good, fairly good prices for hunting privileges may be obtained. Naturally, the higher prices go, or the lower the production, the less the demand. The location of the farm in relation to centers of population and the condition of its stock of favored species of game also influence the possibility of financial returns.

The limitations of nature upon production of wildlife in any area definitely restrict the quantity of game that may be harvested there. Game yield is stated in terms of the numbers of acres per unit of game, not on the head of game per acre. The figures vary widely, but it is unusual for the annual harvest of all farm game to amount to more than one head to every 3 or 4 acres of land.

The natural production of upland game birds is occasionally supplemented by the liberation of pen-reared stock. This is an expensive practice, however, and not well adapted to farm-game projects. The species most commonly stocked are the ring-necked pheasant and the bobwhite quail, mature individuals of which usually cost between \$2 and \$2.50 each. Four-footed animals now used for rehabilitating covers are generally trapped in the wild and transferred to the new location. The rearing of game is a highly skilled profession, requiring expensive equipment and a great deal of time and effort. Although many attempts have been made by average farmers to rear game birds, few have proved successful.

Natural Production Beats Artificial

Under existing conditions it is not practicable for farmers to provide artificially-reared stock for shooting purposes. It follows, therefore, that natural production of wildlife must be depended upon on farms, but it can be encouraged by providing food and shelter, together with protection from natural enemies and man.

Farmers are conscious of the needs of wildlife and more and more of them are attempting to provide the essentials. In erosion-control programs wildlife is being given serious consideration. Many farmers are protecting from trampling by cattle what would otherwise be waste areas, so that wildlife may have undisturbed use of the land. Farmers look upon improvement of wildlife habitat as one of the values of soil and water conservation practices. Many landholders leave food for game in the form of small patches of standing grain and in many other ways demonstrate their interest in the welfare of the wildlife of the farm. They frequently provide protection from natural enemies by predator control and protection from man by limiting the numbers and take of hunters. All these things are indicative of the conservation-mindedness of the farmer group.

From the farmers themselves comes the expression that their greatest benefits from wildlife are the social opportunities it affords, the pleasure they and their families derive from having it about the place and the belief that an appreciation of nature's creations is an important step toward good morals and good citizenship. It is because of this attitude and the strategic position they occupy with respect to the welfare of wildlife that farmers constitute the largest and most important group of conservationists in America.

Patterns for City and Farm In One County

by J. FRANKLIN BONNER

PLANNING in Monroe County, New York, is organized as a division of the department of public works, with a director responsible to the director of public works and the county manager. There is no planning board. Every phase of the work of this division of regional planning has been cooperative, in that no planning work has been undertaken without the support of town and county officers and, in nearly all instances, consulting services have been supplied by the State or Federal Governments.

The advent of the work-relief program resulted both in accelerating the division's program and in expanding its scope, through the projects newly made possible.

The scope of activity of the county planning unit does not include any of the incorporated area of the city of Rochester, but is confined to the study and analysis of physical, social, economic, and governmental needs and conditions beyond the physical boundaries of the city.

The major urban problems in the planning program were a study of the needs and conditions of old subdivisions in special districts bonded for public improvements, with large and increasing tax delinquencies; and the control of the future subdivision of land in order to prevent, as far as practicable, a recurrence of similar conditions, which might lead to economic blight of other areas.

A Guiding Hand for Subdivisions

In the rural-suburban fringe areas, much attention is being given to control of new subdivisions and the guiding of land into the use to which it is best adapted. This requires information as to soil productivity, soil percolation ability, ground water supply, sewage disposal, housing trends, and traffic conditions.

In the rural areas, land use including reforestation, soil-erosion control and the conservation of ground water and wildlife are of prime importance.

No attempt to bring about rural zoning is anticipated. The application of the planning program to lands of the county apparently can best be brought about through cooperation between land owners and regularly established agencies dealing with rural programs.

Such agencies include the New York State and the United States Department of Agriculture, the State college of agriculture and experiment station, the Farm Bureau, the 4-H Club, the departments of vocational agriculture in high schools, and the many civic bodies, including the

Grange, the Conservation Leagues, and other local community-service organizations.

Under State legislative enactments, special district boards were permitted to construct water lines, sewer systems, and streets, and pay for them with funds realized from bonds sold on the credit of the town. To meet the required annual payments of principal and interest on its several improvement district bond issues, the town assesses each parcel benefited for its share of the cost, payable in annual installments. Under the New York State laws, however, if a town fails to collect its entire share of taxes, the county treasurer must advance to the town that part of the levy necessary for town purposes.

Due to the general economic depression many owners of vacant lands, which had been improved by the installation of public services, found it impossible to pay taxes and assessments. As a result, the county now holds tax liens against several thousand suburban lots.

Corrective and Preventive Planning

In order to meet this condition the county manager created a special committee on foreclosures of delinquent vacant lots. This committee is rehabilitating these areas, restoring many parcels to the rolls as assets instead of liabilities. This committee is furnished with materials and information compiled by the Division of Regional Planning.

As such lots become county property it may be necessary to replot some of the areas so as to bring about better physical relations among the many independent subdivisions and special improvement districts; and to reserve lands for future public uses, such as street openings and sites for recreational, educational, and other governmental purposes. This procedure is considered a phase of corrective planning.

The analysis of present needs provides a basis to indicate the use for which the lands of the county may be best adapted. This is a most important task—preventive planning.

In attacking these problems, action is taken along two major lines:

1. Control of the filing of subdivision maps with the county clerk.
2. Requirement of evidence of a potable water supply and an adequate disposal of sewage.

In 1931, the board of supervisors, by resolution, required that all maps submitted to the county clerk for record must be reviewed and have the approval of the county planning unit.

Under the State health law enacted in 1933, all subdivision maps involving 10 or more lots must have the approval of the State department of health before being filed with the county clerk. The real-property law requires that, before lots in subdivisions are offered for sale, maps must be filed with the county clerk. The real-property law also provides that, when vacant lots are offered for sale on the installment plan, the operator must register with the secretary of state.

City Workers Living in the Country

These State laws are enforced in Monroe County through the cooperation of town planning officials, the county clerk, the resident engineer of the State department of health, and the directors of the county division of sanitation and regional planning.

In 1932, in order that habits and trends of commuters might be determined, a house-to-house canvass was made in the rural-urban fringe and rural areas. Commuters were found in 27 percent of the homes. The results of this survey were analyzed and published by the New York State Agricultural Experiment Station, at Cornell University, under the title "Rural Homes of City Workers and the Urban-Rural Migration."

The rural planning program provides for the reforestation of lands of low productivity and those subject to erosion; so that Monroe County, through conservation of its productive soils, may maintain its important position as an agricultural county.

In 1933 a cooperative arrangement was outlined with the State department of conservation, whereby the division of regional planning obtained trees from the State nurseries, for distribution to land owners in the Irondequoit Creek watershed, providing such trees are not cut during the first 7 years of growth. Under this program more than 1,200,000 trees have been planted.

In the spring of 1938 60,000 trees were distributed from the native hardwood nurseries of the Division to landowners and school children in the county. In order to accelerate further the return of native hardwoods on lands best suited for timber production, the Division of Regional Planning, using the services of young men assigned for the work by the National Youth Administration, collected and planted over 1,000,000 seeds of deciduous trees in its forest-tree nurseries at Mendon Ponds Park and at Churchville Park.

Where lands indicated as being best suited for reforestation are tax delinquent and subject to foreclosure, it has been recommended that such lands be taken over by local governmental units for reforestation.

The Place of Maps in Monroe County

Other phases of the planning program have included the drawing of property maps for each of the 19 towns and 10 villages, comprising more than 65,000 individual parcels of land. These maps are now available for use of the assessors, and also serve as base maps for special problem studies in comparative land values, public-service installations (water, sewers, lighting, and pavements), zoning and land use, tax delinquencies and bonded debt liens, school population distribution, plant ecology, and others.

Studies have been made and reports published dealing with: Winter kill of apple trees, 1933-34; ground water resources; pollution of surface waters of Monroe County; studies of bonded debt and tax delinquency for five suburban towns; inventories for planning for one village and for seven towns; "The Planning Program in Monroe County" (a series of seven informal talks). Inventories for six additional towns have been completed and are in process of publication. The field work has been completed and a preliminary map of the land classification has been drawn for one other town. Studies completed, but not published, include: "A Survey of Traffic Conditions in Monroe County," "The Economic Geology of Monroe County," and "The Cost of Old-Age Assistance."

The planning inventories for the towns include information, data, and maps dealing with financial, social, and physical conditions, both past and present, with recommendations in some cases to meet apparent needs.

In addition to the long-term program, current problems are often placed before the division by town, school, village, and county officials for study and report.

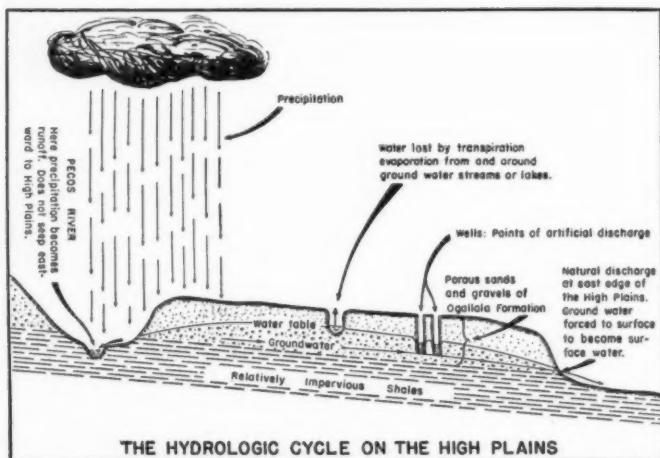
Building the County on Planned Lines

These have included such topics as house numbering and street names, tracing sources of pollution in wells, preventing development of residential subdivisions in areas subject to flooding, traffic movement and accident hazards, lay-out of new and replotting of old subdivisions, location of potable water supplies, trends in location and ages of school populations as bases in charting school building and financing programs, development of emergency work projects, drafting of zoning ordinances, control of establishment of slaughter houses, septic tank installations, maps for fire protection districts, and many others.

Data assembled and analyzed by the division serve as basic material for the study of the county's needs and conditions. Upon these are made plans and programs for physical, social, economic and civic growth and development, within the resources and needs of the county, so as to provide a better balance among places of work, business, residence, and recreation, and for growth of plans in keeping with changing social and economic conditions.

Land and Water in the High Plains

by HOMER M. WELLS



THE High Plains are characterized by deficient water resources and extensive land resources. The fullest use of land resources is limited almost entirely by the meager water resources. Hence any discussion of land and water problems necessarily must start with a description of the topographic and climatic features of the area.

The shallow-water area of the Texas Panhandle lies within a portion of the Southern Great Plains known as the High Plains. These Plains, the elevation of which varies from 4,500 feet in the western portion to 3,400 feet in the eastern portion, are remnants of an older vast plain and occur as a long and narrow strip of segmented plateaus.

Few streams have their origin in the plateaus and a very small part of the rainfall is discharged as stream-flow beyond the plain top. The land surface is, in general, smooth and featureless and slopes in an easterly, or southeasterly, direction. A characteristic phenomenon is the presence of innumerable "sinks" or natural bowl-shaped depressions, formed when the surface subsided into underground caverns. Varying in size from small ponds to basins 5 to 7 miles in diameter, these saucerlike reservoirs

are to be found throughout the High Plains and little of the land surface escapes the influence of one of them. The sinks naturally trap most of the surface water originating on the plain top.

Farm Planning and Water Planning

The climate of the shallow-water area is typical of the southern High Plains. The yearly rainfall is low and fluctuates within wide limits, while winds are prevalent and a high percentage of total sunshine prevails. Evaporation losses are high, and because the discharge of the surface water is relatively low, there is little opportunity for man to set up large artificial works for the beneficial use of the limited surface water in the area. It is apparent, therefore, that the best agricultural use of the area involves, to a large extent, the proper planning of the use of the ground water supply.

The ground water of the High Plains is replenished only by that portion of the rain falling on the plain top—and let it be remembered this is a very small percentage of the total—which percolates downward to join the main body of ground water. The recharge of ground water is approximately equal in quantity to the natural discharge by seepage into springs and stream beds; hence, the ground waters of the region are in a state of transient storage.

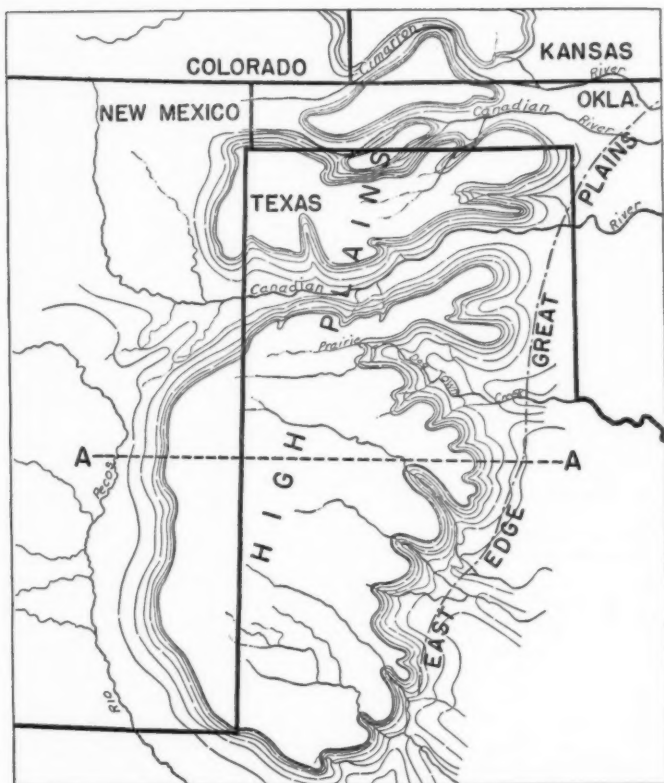
It must be realized that water obtained from wells is recovered from ground storage and that the present supply is diminishing. Recognizing this fact, it is obvious that although the decline is not alarming at this time, except very locally, any planning for the use of the land for the benefit of the area as a whole must take into consideration the possible consequences of unregulated and unwise removal of the ground water.

How Pumps Fit in the Picture

The depth of the water table in the shallow water area varies greatly, in some parts being less than 50 feet and in others 100 feet or more. According to a report of the Texas State Board of Water Engineers made in cooperation with the United States Geological Survey, there were in 1938 about 4,000 square miles of land in the Texas Panhandle within which well irrigation had been developed. In all, about 1,150 irrigation wells were operated in 1937, supplying water for approximately 160,000 acres of land. There was pumped for use on this area a total of approximately 130,000 acre-feet of water.

The greater part of the water thus far pumped from these wells has been at the expense of reducing the ground water storage. With continued pumping a gradual decline in the water table will occur which eventually will curtail drastically the amount of water available for use. Because the water level of an individual well is influenced both by local

and general conditions, it is impossible to reach exact conclusions as to the extent of the decline from the brief records obtained thus far. Available data indicate that there has been a recession of a few feet in the pumped areas since irrigation was started. The extent to which this will affect the total available storage cannot be predicted, but continued heavy draft on the water will result in further decline. Wells have not been



RELIEF SKETCH ILLUSTRATING THE TOPOGRAPHY OF
THE GREAT AND HIGH PLAINS

spaced in such a way as to guard against localized overdraft and in some localities present pumpage exceeds the limits of safety.

The Conflict of Theoretical "Bests"

At present, the quantity of ground water available at reasonable depths in most parts of the High Plains is in excess of the demand; nevertheless, the supply can be so depleted that it will seriously affect the economy of the area. Because this is true, it follows that the most efficient possible use of the water is in theory desirable, but such use may not be a means of providing the most beneficial land use for the region as a whole. The use of pumped water for raising crops not adapted to promoting proper utilization of the land may, over a long period of time, be detrimental to the welfare of the area.

Prior to the coming of the white man, the High Plains were covered with a short grass which had adapted itself to withstand the rigorous climatic conditions of the region. The unwise cultivation of the soil in many parts of the area removed this cover grass from hundreds of thousands of acres of land. An extended period of drouth resulted in complete crop failures, leaving the bare and desiccated soil subject to the attack of the strong winds that prevail in the area and causing a tremendous loss of the rich surface soil. The immediate effect was the impoverishing of entire communities in the region and, locally, in wholesale emigration from portions of the area. The economic loss to the nation due to this localized misuse of the land is incalculable.

The need for making land adjustments on a large scale is fully realized. It is not necessary, therefore, to describe the chaotic condition brought about by the abnormally low rainfall of the past seven or eight years. Where conditions of this kind prevail, it is important to guard against misuse of available water supply. The remedy for such misuse of the soil and water lies in a planned economy that has for its objective a stabilized economy for the area lying within the influence of the High Plains. Obviously, the ground water is a resource that should be utilized and put to beneficial use, but only in quantities which will not cause such depletion as ultimately to be disastrous to the area. Too heavy a draft on the ground water supply can change the aspect of a community from that of green fields and abundant crops to that of barren desolation.

The planned use of land and the planned use of water are of equal importance. The proper use of water resources is the foundation for proper use of land resources in arid and semiarid regions. Any adjustment must be initiated with the thought of using these resources to the best advantage. Failure on the part of land users to realize that land is an exhaustible resource and that its productive capacity can be depleted will bring disaster to a community. Likewise, failure on the part of water users to

realize that water is an exhaustible resource, and can be wasted, will bring disaster. There are numerous examples in the West where an overdraft on the ground water supply has caused a complete readjustment in land use, seldom to the advantage of the individual and often to the detriment of an entire community.

Lack of Water as Limiting Factor

Lack of water has been and is a limiting factor in most of the areas in the West where the Department of Agriculture has been bringing about land use adjustments. In some of these areas, because the land is readily adaptable to cultivation, settlement was promoted, but not until too late was the discovery made that, despite the fertility of the soil, crops could not be produced, nor a sustained economy maintained, without additional moisture. In most of these areas, the supply of ground water is not sufficient to afford any amount of irrigation. If it were, there might be a need for adjustments, but the adjustments would not be of the same character as those now being made.

The value of proper and equitable distribution of a water supply was recognized even as far back as the early Egyptians in their agricultural pursuits. On our own continent the early Spaniards found extensive irrigation works which had been developed by the Indians. Some of our modern irrigation canals are located substantially in the same location where the Indians constructed a canal several hundred years ago. All of these ancient irrigation systems were built on the principle of the diversion of a limited water supply to satisfy individual needs. While no thought of conservation, as we know it today, was in the minds of these early people, they were cognizant of the fact that too heavy an application of water was detrimental to their crops. Planning for the control of surface water to prevent excessive irrigation is an accepted practice today. This lesson has been learned only by hard and expensive experience.

If it be true that planning is an essential function in the proper utilization of a surface water supply, it stands to reason that the proper planning of a subsurface supply is of vastly greater importance, because danger signals are not so easily recognized. Little is known about the rate of recharge to the ground water storage. Only through continued records and observations can the technician judge when the limit of safe withdrawal is being approached. While there is water yet to be withdrawn, it is difficult sometimes for the layman to realize that danger lies ahead if excessive draft is continued. Particularly is this true in the shallow water area of the Texas Panhandle, where the ground water supply is of historical origin and is the result of accumulation over a long period of years. Its depletion will destroy the economic welfare of the inhabitants of the region. The importance of guarding this supply cannot be overemphasized.

Let It Go To Grass

by GLADWIN E. YOUNG

“WHAT do I care? Let it go to grass.” Thus the pioneer farmer. Today we might more aptly say, “Let it go to gullies,” for many millions of our acres, from which the cream of virgin fertility has been skimmed, no longer “go to grass” when cropping is discontinued.

Our new respect for conservation is now causing agriculture to place a new value and a new importance on pastures. Traditional unconcern and neglect of pasture grasses and pasture management is being broken down.

During most of our agricultural development, returns from crops have exceeded returns from pastures. Hence, vast grazing areas have retreated before the plow. To each of millions of farmers was entrusted the use of his land for his lifetime. Upon his land was fought the battle of maintaining a balance between what he could afford to do and what he might have liked to do, or what we now wish he had done to conserve the fertility of the soil.

Can any of these farmers now be blamed, if in former years they found that their immediate economic welfare depended upon harvesting the original fertility of the soil through continuous cropping, rather than conserving it, or harvesting it more slowly through pasturing?

Wealth Created and Wealth Destroyed

Our forefathers, the original settlers of the timbered lands, cut, piled, and burned huge trees to make room for crops from which they might live. They were following practices that were then to their greatest immediate economic advantage. Those trees today would be valuable, yet wealth was created at that time by destroying them.

The fertility of our soils has been exploited in much the same way as our timber resources. Each farmer for succeeding generations has used his land in any manner he decided was to his greatest economic advantage, immediate or long term. Some gave greater thought and effort than did others toward conserving fertility for succeeding users of the land.

From a national standpoint, we have been wasteful of our natural resources. Individuals, because of their short-time viewpoint, will continue to be wasteful. Conservation for the future must remain the concern and responsibility of state and national governments, land policies of which can be developed from a long-time point of view.

The national forest program and the programs of establishing national parks and national wildlife areas, together with the many state forest, park, and wildlife programs, express acceptance by the public of responsibility for restoring land to beneficial and productive uses when individuals have failed to accomplish this end.

This paper advances the suggestion that there is as great, or even greater, responsibility on the part of the public to assist with the restoration of the grass cover on certain of our lands, as there is for reforestation, and for much the same reason.

Sermons in Trees and Grass Alike

In the same way that the need for public reforestation of land has grown out of attempts to use land for farming when it is not suited to that purpose, so the need for establishing pastures at public expense has grown out of attempts to crop land which is not suited for cropping. There is no need to restate the very valid arguments that have been used to justify reforestation at public cost. But it may be contended that protection of watersheds from rapid run-off of rainfall, protection against siltation of waterways, conservation of irreplaceable soil resources against erosion, and development of land resources for present population support in line with conservation objectives—that all of these desirable consequences of reforestation may be the theme of equally valid arguments for regressing.

Those engaged in the land use planning program of the Department of Agriculture the last 3 years at various times have pointed out that there exist, in addition to distinctly submarginal farming areas, certain areas in the humid regions which yet have possible agricultural value, if they could be used chiefly for grazing, instead of cropping. Such "problem areas" usually are described as areas where farms are too small to permit operation of economic grazing units, but where grazing is the major desirable use of the land. Such areas usually are described as overcapitalized. They present acute problems of low-farm income, high indebtedness, high rate of erosion from overcropping, declining livestock numbers, with build-ings and fences in a general state of disrepair.

What New Patterns and How To Make Them?

An example of this situation may be found in varying degrees of severity on approximately ten million acres of land in southern Iowa and northern Missouri. A grazing type of farming once was followed in this area. During the last quarter of a century, however, livestock numbers have declined materially and this decline has been accompanied by decrease in pasture acreage and increase in crop acres. There is much substance to the argument that a change in type of farming, from relatively small general farms to larger grazing farms, will be necessary to restore reasonable farm incomes and, at the same time, to devote land to its best long-time usefulness. The alternative—continuation of present small general farms with intensive cultivation—apparently will result in the decline of many large areas to submarginal agricultural status.

The depleted capital of farmers within such areas almost precludes the possibility of farmers buying adjoining farms to enlarge their units. The fact that the land tends to be considerably overcapitalized for grazing use makes the investment unattractive to outside capital. In other words, an

adjustment to larger farm size for any appreciable proportion of farms is almost impossible of accomplishment without some form of public assistance. But, even if it were possible to increase farm size, and granting that some farms within such areas are now large enough, there still would remain the problem of restoring the grass cover on abandoned fields, re-fencing pastures, and rebuilding the breeding herds of livestock. All of these require investments and waiting for returns. These requirements cannot be met by an already decadent agricultural community, save by public subsidy of one kind or another.

At this point, the question of public policy regarding conservation of land resources arises. The need of much more thought and research on the subject is clear. Nevertheless, one may say with some authority that there are many millions of acres that could be saved from destruction if they could be regressed, but they will not be regressed under private ownership with private capital, for the same reasons that individuals find it impossible to practice reforestation.

The Opportunity for Public Pastures

If this is true, then there is ample justification for the Department of Agriculture to include in the land use adjustment program, under Title III of the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenancy Act, projects which will demonstrate the feasibility of establishing public pastures in these areas. Projects of this character of course have been under way in the Great Plains regions for several years. Similar projects are now being initiated, or are under consideration in the humid regions.

Public grazing areas in the corn belt, established through the purchase of many small uneconomic farms within a soil conservation district, deserve careful consideration as a means of assisting individual farmers to establish a grazing type of farming. Careful planning and study must accompany such projects. Through local grazing associations, or the soil conservation district organizations, farmers adjoining the public grazing areas could arrange to use the pastures under such regulations as would be necessary to protect their carrying capacity. Such an arrangement, in effect, would increase the size of these adjoining farms after farming operations had been adjusted.

Public grazing areas would not, of course, offer a panacea for decadent agricultural communities where the best economic use of the land appears to be for grazing purposes. No land use adjustment problem is that simple. On the other hand, the economic utilization of low-grade cropland for pastures has received so little attention from researchers that perhaps it is time some thorough laboratory work were done. Agronomists have recognized the futility of the attitude "let it go to grass," and have developed some answers as to how to "make it go to grass." Many problems confront economists in determining how and by whom the costs can be paid.

Plants Without Soil

GROWTH of plants in water culture in recent years has become the subject of sensationalism in periodical and other literature. The scientists who have interested themselves in the method have had little or no responsibility, however, for the extravagant claims made for its commercial possibilities. Although the method dates back many years, growth of plants in nutrient solutions became a topic of general comment in this country only after Dr. W. F. Gericke, of the University of California, suggested it held possibilities of commercial crop production and after some of his more striking results were given widespread publicity. Ever since, the university, Federal agencies, and others have been showered with requests for information.

"The growth of plants in water culture for commercial purposes does not rest on any recently discovered principle of plant nutrition," asserts the University of California experiment station in a publication issued in response to this interest.

"It involves, rather, the application of a new large-scale technique, developed on the basis of an understanding of plant nutrition gained in previous investigations conducted on a laboratory scale. The fundamental physiology of the plant is the same, whether it is grown in an artificial nutrient solution or in a soil. In either case suitable temperatures and illumination, and an adequate supply of water, of essential salts, and of oxygen to the roots, must be provided."¹ Such a solution is placed in a relatively shallow tank, over which lies a screen to support the bedding or mulch that holds seeds or young plants.

As to results, the California publication emphasizes that reports of huge yields of plants grown in water culture may be based on erroneous deductions. "It is of doubtful validity to make predictions," it says, "concerning yields in large-scale commercial production, based on yields in small-scale experiments under laboratory control. In any event, there is little profit in comparing an average yield from unstaked tomato plants grown in the protection of a greenhouse for a full year . . . The equipment for an acre of water-culture plants would be very costly, and technical supervision of the cultures and labor of staking vines would necessitate large expenditures."

Balancing the Scales on Water Culture

A number of commercial ventures in the field are now under way, the successors, some of them, to previous failures. Santa Fe and Union Pacific Railroad diners are partially served from such gardens, and enterprises of various types are in course of development, mostly on the Pacific coast. A half dozen or more colleges are now conducting water-culture

¹"*Growing Plants Without Soil by the Water-Culture Method.*" D. R. Hoagland and D. I. Arnon, University of California.

work of one kind or another, among them Purdue University, the University of Wisconsin, and Rutgers University.

A recent interesting project has been the installation on Wake Island by Pan-American Airways, Inc., of equipment for the growth of vegetables and fruits in water culture. The experiment was started about the first of this year, under supervision of Lamory Laumeister, a student of agrobiology at the University of California. Tendency of his plants to grow too much to stalk and too little to leaf, Laumeister has traced, according to the airways company, to the great light intensity of the latitude of Wake Island. Numerous other difficulties have cropped up in conduct of the work, but the company regards the experiment as sufficiently successful to justify increasing from 120 to 1,200 square feet the size of the garden. Vegetables grown thus far with the Wake Island equipment include lettuce, beans, carrots, squash, corn, cucumbers, and tomatoes. Melons, pineapples, and papayas are now growing.

Areas of Special Application

Significance attaches to the Wake Island experiment because the island, lacking water and plant-sustaining soil, will support naturally nothing but pickle-weed grass and scrub brush. Hence, its expense may be justified by its value, in the light of conditions peculiar to the island. The experiment may be regarded as indicative of the probable course of water-culture development, so far as it may be predicted now. While large-scale commercial production seems remote, it may be of value in such special instances as this. Periodic flooding of 2 acres of sand a mile above sea level with a nutrient solution has been reported in Caspar, Wyo., experiments, where it was said numerous vegetable, fruit, and flower varieties have been grown in a season of less than 120 days.² An article in a recent issue of a popular periodical asserts that "Doctor Gericke visualizes the great future of hydroponic farming in the desert areas of Arizona, Nevada, New Mexico, California . . . The intense light, the hot climate, freedom from pests and disease, make the desert regions a natural," he says, "for hydroponic growing."³

This, most experts agree, however, is looking farther into the future than progress in water-culture growth at present justifies. While the method may have possibilities of practical application under some conditions and with proper supervision, it clearly is not as yet to be regarded as a method that should be employed by inexperienced individuals with the expectation that it will solve their food supply problems.

Since this is true, it is hardly necessary to add that the method is hardly likely to have appreciable significance as regards early changes in use of land for agriculture, and therefore for the land use planner.

² "Soilless Farming." V. G. Frost. *The Farm Journal*. November 1938.

³ "You Can Try It Yourself." Frank J. Taylor. *The Saturday Evening Post*, Philadelphia, Penn., August 20, 1938.

Governmental Tax Immunity

I. The Problem

by HUGO C. SCHWARTZ

This is the first of two articles dealing with the work of a Department of Agriculture committee that is now considering the problem of Federal contribution to local government in lieu of taxes. The second article will deal with recommendations of the committee.

NOT expressed in the Constitution, the doctrine of immunity from taxation of Federal and State governmental agencies began with a decision of the Supreme Court early in our history. The decision was written by Chief Justice John Marshall in 1819 in the famous case of *McCulloch v. Maryland*.

In this case the Court invalidated a Maryland law imposing a discriminatory tax on the Bank of the United States. The States were generally opposed to the Bank and most of them passed laws interfering with its operation, or forbidding establishment of branches within their jurisdictions. The Maryland law was reviewed by the Court. Daniel Webster was among those who plead the case for the Bank, and the cogency of his arguments presumably had great weight with the Court. He insisted that the Bank could be destroyed if the State were empowered to levy any tax upon it.¹

John Marshall, in the course of the decision and in approval of Webster's reasoning, made the oft-quoted statement that "the power to tax involves the power to destroy." This, the Court said, our Constitution would not permit, the tax was declared invalid, and the doctrine of inter-governmental immunity from taxation was thus established.

The doctrine has been developed in a long line of decisions by the Court since that time. These, however, have not clarified by any means all of the issues involved. Suffice it to say that it is well established that federally owned property, about a small portion of which this article is concerned, is exempt from taxation by the States. This is true at least of such

¹ Taxation of Government Bondholders and Employees—The Immunity Rule and the Sixteenth Amendment. Department of Justice, 1938, p. 13. See this study for a thorough discussion of the legal aspects of tax exemption of governmental instrumentalities.

property which the Congress has not consented should be taxed. Thus far, Congress has consented to taxation only in the case of certain lending agencies of a quasi-governmental nature.

Land Programs and the Public Purse

Perhaps no other single feature of the Federal land utilization program has been so frequently the subject of disapproving comment on the part of officials of local governments and of affected property taxpayers. When one reflects that the principal source of income to the local governments is from the yield of the property tax, the reason for their censure is apparent.

The problem of the local governments in this regard has become an object of concern to the Department of Agriculture. The Soil Conservation Service, which now administers the land-utilization program, and the Forest Service and the Biological Survey, administer hundreds of thousands of acres of federally owned lands, all exempt from local taxation. In recognition of the need for study of the problem, the Office of the Land Use Planning Coordinator has recently appointed a committee, consisting of representatives of several agencies within the Department, to examine the situation and to make recommendations regarding legislation that might be proposed to the Congress for amendment of existing laws regarding compensation to local governments for loss of taxes through Federal ownership of land.

In considering the problem in this article, it is assumed at the outset that the Federal Government does not have the same obligation to contribute toward the support of local governments as do other owners of land in any community. The ownership and administration of land by the Federal Government is in pursuit of a national policy, established by the people of the Nation through their representatives, the Congress. Under our Constitution the right of Congress to prosecute such a policy could not be conditioned by any obligation such as being subject to local taxation. However, the Congress might contribute to the support of local government, or even permit federally owned property to be taxed, if it saw fit to do so.

The claims of the local governments should, therefore, be appraised in terms of the conditions surrounding Federal ownership of any particular land. That is, a rate of contribution might be established (once the policy is established that *any* payment is to be made) by weighing considerations of national policy, together with the benefits and losses which local governments experience as a result of Federal ownership.

Long-Range Programs Vs. Immediate Needs

The land-utilization program, for example, is designed to promote land conservation and more scientific use of the land resources of the Nation. In part, this is to be accomplished by helping the States and individuals in

planning for these ends. Aid in promoting the conservation goal also is given through Federal purchase of lands unsuitable for intensive cultivation, but on which such farming is being attempted. Lands so purchased are then administered by some public agency and devoted to their best use, usually grazing, forestry, or recreation.

The many benefits of such a program are obvious. The Nation is well served when its Government acts to preserve its resources and to improve the efficiency of its agriculture. In accomplishing these ends the Government is performing an acknowledged proper function. More specifically, residents of the areas in which the land-buying program is carried on benefit in many ways.

In developing such land, men are given employment with wages from the national purse, purchasing power in the community is increased, relief rolls are decreased. Public improvements of benefit to the local community are made without the use of property-tax revenues. By giving residents of lands which are poorly suited to agriculture an opportunity to settle elsewhere and, thus, depopulating areas of scattered settlement where the costs of government are high, it often is possible to reduce the cost of local governmental services. Aid also may be provided by helping in such reorganization of local government as may be desired, once a realistic estimation of the community's resources is accepted.

But, unless these advantages result in actual monetary compensation for tax losses, the immediate financial difficulties of the local governments may be aggravated by a Federal land-buying program. The acuteness of the problem is emphasized by the fact that financial weakness, arising out of unwise land use, is characteristic of those areas in which the land-utilization program is being developed. In these communities tax delinquency is relatively great, debt is apt to be burdensome, and deficit financing is often the rule. In such localities comparatively slight tax losses may induce default, if, indeed, default has not already occurred.

Congress Recognizes the Problem

Even in situations where local finances are in good order, but where substantial portions of the land in any such taxing unit are purchased and costs are not proportionately reduced, financial difficulties may result. Data assembled regarding land-utilization projects show that very large reductions have been made in the tax base of many of the local governments in which land is purchased. For example, in a study involving a group of 85 school districts, wherein the purchase program has been carried on, 31 suffered a reduction of more than 50 percent in taxable valuation.

Of course, tax delinquency usually is comparatively high on the valuation representing land purchased by the Government. However, most

such lands are no more than 40-percent delinquent in tax payments and, for some portions, the rate of delinquency is even lower. Data covering periods of from 3 to 9 years show tax delinquency on certain of the lands optioned for purchase in North Dakota, averaging 43 percent of the taxes levied on these lands, 33 percent in South Dakota, 20 percent in Nebraska, and 29 percent in Montana. A district losing a substantial portion of its annual property-tax revenues by reason of Federal purchase of land, without a corresponding decrease in costs, must find some method of immediately replacing ordinary receipts, if it is to continue to supply public services to its residents.

The Congress has recognized a responsibility in this regard and has adopted legislation now in effect providing compensation for property tax losses. In behalf of the Forest Service, the Treasury is authorized to pay 25 percent of gross receipts from national forests to the States for the benefit of schools and roads. In addition, 10 percent may be spent in the construction of roads and improvements within the forests. The Treasury also pays 25 percent of gross receipts from the wildlife refuges of the Biological Survey to the counties for benefit of roads and schools. The Secretary of Agriculture is required to pay to the counties 25 percent of the net revenues from land utilization projects for local schools and roads. An opinion of the Comptroller General construes the term "net revenues" to be virtually gross receipts, so that the law with respect to land utilization property authorizes much the same rate of payment as in the case of forest lands and wildlife refuges.

The Task of the Department's Committee

The Farm Security Administration is authorized to make payments, in lieu of taxes, for the cost of public services rendered resettlement projects; the Public Works Administration has a similar authorization with regard to housing projects; the United States Housing Authority is permitted to make payments in lieu of taxes; the Taylor Grazing Act permits payment of 50 percent of the gross revenues from grazing districts to the States; the Tennessee Valley Authority and the Federal Power Act provide for certain compensation to the States; school tuition may be paid for Indians resident on Government-owned land; and the Congress has permitted such lending agencies as the Home Owners' Loan Corporation, the Federal land banks, and the Federal Housing Administration to pay taxes on the real estate owned by them.

Thus the Congress has adopted many different methods of contributing to the support of local government, in consideration of the loss of property taxes by reason of Federal-tax exemption. Each was adopted in the light of conditions met by the various agencies at the time of enactment of the laws providing compensation. With respect to all conservation lands of

the Department of Agriculture, contributions are much the same; that is, they amount substantially to 25 percent of gross receipts.²

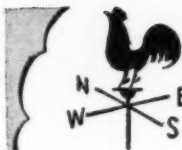
However, to compute payments as a percentage of receipts is a primary defect, when considered from the point of view of the local governments. Any correlation that might exist between the yield of revenues from conservation lands to the Federal Government and the financial needs of the local governments in which these are located would be fortuitous. In fact, during the course of an active land-utilization program, the costs of local government are apt to be greatest at the time of least revenue to the Government from its conservation lands. This is true immediately after Federal purchase, when the land is being developed for use and when the costs of local government continue because of existing debt and because population in the area may not have been reduced so as to permit the end of costly public services.

It is this failure of existing legislation to meet consistently the needs of local governments which has resulted in agitation among them for more equitable compensation by the Federal Government for the property-tax losses they experience, and it is to this problem that the Department's committee has addressed itself.

Contributors to This Issue

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² No payment is authorized for lands administered by the Soil Conservation Service, exclusive of lands purchased under the land-utilization program, or under the Water Facilities Act. However, the total acreage so administered is very small.



Here and there

★ WHY not more community forests? asks Nelson C. Brown, writer on conservation topics . . . Cities, towns, and counties should own at least 10,000 such forests, with a total area of 20,000,000 to 30,000,000 acres, he says . . . There are 1,500 community forests in the Nation now, with an area of about 3,000,000 acres . . . And speaking of trees, Kansas farmers hung up a new record in tree planting in 1938 . . . They planted more than 1,000,000 trees on Soil Conservation Service erosion-control demonstration areas . . . But farmers in the mountain counties of western North Carolina plan to top this record in the new year . . . They're going to plant between 2,000,000 and 4,000,000 trees on badly eroded land.

★ DEMANDS for Federal legislation against stream pollution are being renewed . . . Chairman Robertson, of the House committee studying wildlife conservation, has reported to Congress his committee's recommendation of a measure to accomplish the objectives of the so-called Vinson stream pollution bill, passed by the last Congress and vetoed by the President.

★ THOSE who want copies of the final report of the Iowa Farm Tenancy Committee can get them now by writing the Iowa State Planning Board, Des Moines . . . To coordinate the work of groups studying migration problems, a council on interstate migration has just been organized by the National Social Work Council's committee on care of transient and homeless . . . Legislation for roadside improvement was the central topic of a joint conference held in New York recently by the National Roadside Council, the conservation committee of the Garden Club of America, and the American Planning and Civic Association.

★ WHEN farmers in the Virden district of New Mexico wanted irrigation water, the State defied a Federal court order and opened the head-gates of the Gila River irrigation ditches at Virden . . . An Arizona Federal district court had ordered irrigation in the district restricted . . . Over in California, it seems, one irrigation problem, at least, is nearing solution . . . A meter to measure the amount of irrigation water being delivered to any particular field has been developed by C. N. Johnston and E. Christiansen . . . The meter is easy to transport and to attach to pipe lines.

★ RECENT transfers of land-use projects to Federal agencies include those of the Magazine Mountain project in Arkansas to the Forest Service; the Maine rural life project to the Bureau of Biological Survey, and the former Coalins Forest project (new name: Kentucky Woodlands Wildlife Refuge) to the Bureau of Biological Survey . . . The Georgia Coastal Flatwoods project also has been transferred to the State of Georgia under a 50-year lease . . . The Pensacola, Fla., project has been turned over to the Florida Board of Forestry for management . . . The University of Florida has assumed management of 2,049 acres of the Welaka project, with the Bureau of Fisheries taking charge of 426 acres . . . A 991-acre slice of the Eastern Shore, Md., project also was transferred to the Forest Service in November.

★ Conversion of land subject to recurrent floods to forest use and their zoning for ultimate incorporation into managed forests are advocated by Dr. Donald F. Jones, geneticist of the Connecticut Experiment Station. . . . Much of such land is suitable for tree production, which would be more efficient use than for farmland, he believes. . . . Dr. Jones stresses the heavy cost of flood prevention that will be required to keep such land in farms.

★ TURKEY cooperatives lead the field in adopting the Department's standards and grades for dressed turkeys . . . Handling more than 20 percent of the total crop, turkey cooperatives have pioneered in use of strict grading practices . . . Cattle producers in 1937 had a cash income of \$1,217,000,000, their best in 8 years.

★ FARMERS are lowering their mortgage debts . . . The B. A. E. estimates the debt at \$7,082,156,000 on January 1, 1938, compared with \$7,254,821,000 a year earlier . . . A further decrease is noted for the first half of 1938, continuing the 9-year trend . . . Although foreclosures have continued to be a factor in the decline, the improved income of farmers since 1933 has permitted substantial reductions through normal debt payments.

★ Almost one-seventeenth of Texas' area, or about 10,000,000 acres, is included in community and county-wide game management associations, although the Texas Extension Service's game management program is less than 2 years old. . . . So says the Texas Weekly. . . . Farmers joining the groups have agreed to provide adequate feed and cover for game and to protect the supply for restocking.



Books

READJUSTMENTS OF AGRICULTURAL TENURE IN IRELAND. *Elizabeth R. Hooker. \$4. The University of North Carolina Press. Chapel Hill. 1938.*

Less than three-quarters of a century ago 97 percent of the farmers of Ireland were tenants. Today Ireland is a land of home owners; less than 3 percent of the agricultural land is operated by tenants.

In the early days when the farm home ownership program was inaugurated, the Irish tenants were poverty stricken, uneducated, poorly housed, ill clothed, and undernourished. The land was being rapidly depleted. Rural social institutions were poorly developed, if present at all. Vandalism and bloodshed were condoned, and even praised if a foreign landlord or his agent was the victim. Many of the "vested interests" said that nothing could be done to correct the situation—that the common Irish were naturally that way, that they were a happy, carefree lot with no thought of the morrow. A few of the leaders realized that such was not the case. In explaining the contemporary attitude of the Irish tenants and indicating its cause, John Stuart Mill said, "What race would not be indolent and insouciant when things are so arranged that they derive no advantage from forethought or exertion?" Today the sons of the former Irish tenants are thrifty, peace-loving home owners. They possess those other cardinal virtues that were supposedly not a part of their heritage, and their economic, social, and educational status is markedly improved. The new situation was brought about by positive action programs, financed by the Government and executed by governmental agencies, designed to readjust the outstanding shortcomings of the land-tenure system. These programs proved highly successful, even though the Irish farmer was traditionally a tenant with little or no desire to own the land that he operated.

A few years after the beginning of the Irish home-ownership program the Census of Agriculture of 1880 for the United States revealed that more than 25 percent of our farmers were tenants. This information revealed a situation that had developed unobserved. It was shocking that the American ideal of the family-sized farm operated by its owner was no longer within the reach of a large segment of our farmers. During the following two decades the ugly farm tenancy monster that had raised its head was discussed in some circles, but the discussions were largely abstract and unproductive. Soon after the turn of the century the Federal Department of Agriculture began to attack the problem largely from the

standpoint of improving the tenancy system through the educational process. Later, many of the agricultural colleges instituted the same type of programs. It was not until recently, however, that much attention was given to eliminating farm tenancy.

This latter approach culminated in the introduction of a bill in the Congress known as the "Farm Tenancy Homes Act of 1935" on February 11, 1935, by Senator Bankhead, and the final enactment in July 1937 of a bill authorizing the Secretary of Agriculture to inaugurate a system of long-term mortgage loans to aid farm tenants, sharecroppers, and laborers to become farm owners. In the congressional hearings on the tenancy bill and in public discussions of the problem, the Irish land tenure reform program was referred to time and again. It was thought that the experience of Ireland would throw light on the planning and perfecting of our farm home ownership program. It was to supply this information and related facts that this book was written.

The book is divided into 10 chapters. The first and second chapters describe the historical background of the tenure situation and indicate briefly the early program designed to improve the relations between landlord and tenant. The next four chapters are given over to a more or less detailed description of the farm home ownership program. The seventh, eighth, and ninth chapters present information regarding the programs developed for the congested districts, landless men, and rural laborers. The final chapter attempts to show briefly how the lessons learned from the Irish land tenure reform programs will prove of value in answering pertinent questions that will arise as we continue to develop our tenure reform programs.

Transformation of tenants into owners perhaps naturally involved the largest of the programs. Between 1869 and 1935, 546,660 farms, covering 17,354,109 acres, were purchased. The amount of money loaned to purchasers was almost three-quarters of a billion dollars, and represented more than 98 percent of the purchase price of the holdings. The ownership program was started in a modest way, largely as an experiment, and expanded and adjusted as experience dictated, until virtually all tenant farmers in Ireland were included.

Miss Hooker has given a detailed discussion of the development of the program by four periods, her divisions corresponding to the type and intensity of the program. The first stage was a period of experimentation during which general plans for procedure were evolved. The second period was one of rapid expansion of appropriations in order to reach an increasingly large number of tenant farmers. The success of the program became so widely recognized and its extension so universally demanded that the third period was one of general land purchase, an endeavor being made to transform all tenants into owners so far as both tenants and landlords would cooperate willingly. The fourth and final period found the idea of occupying ownership so thoroughly accepted that all the land

required to make the system universal was automatically transferred to the public agencies handling the program without regard to the wishes of the landlord.

The farm home ownership program, however, was not sufficient to meet the pressing land tenure problems in certain parts of Ireland. Scattered through the whole western third of the country conditions similar to those existing in the Southern Appalachian Highlands and the cut-over region of the Great Lakes were prevalent. A special program was developed to relieve the acute problems in these districts. In other parts of Ireland there were landless men who desired to farm, and farm laborers whose wages were at the bare subsistence level. Appropriate public agencies were established to eliminate the antisocial aspects of these situations.

Although sufficient information was not at hand and sufficient time has not elapsed for final evaluations of the various programs, the author indicated tentative conclusions regarding numerous queries that are of interest to the American reader. The book contains much information that is essential to agricultural leaders in this country who would develop, guide, and adjust our endeavors to improve the lot of our underprivileged farm population. It is, therefore, an indispensable addition to the libraries of those who would be well-informed on such problems and who need such information close at hand. Although printed in a limited edition of 750 copies, it will serve an evident need. From an American point of view, it is clearly the outstanding contribution to our knowledge of the Irish program of land-tenure reform.—MARSHALL HARRIS.

AN INQUIRY INTO THE PRINCIPLES OF THE GOOD SOCIETY. *Walter Lippmann. Little, Brown & Co., Boston Mass. pp. 402.*

The "good society" is a social and economic order which is governed by the principles of Lippmann liberalism, of which Mr. Lippmann proclaims Adam Smith to be the progenitor. Since the land-use planner must, of necessity, be interested in political forms, the book carries a general interest for the worker in agricultural economics. The "good society" exists and can exist only in an "exchange economy" where the mode of production is characterized by the "division of labor," refined, assured, and regulated by the free forces of the open market. Its existence is menaced on the one hand by the "collectivist" heretics and, on the other, by the sinners of "latter-day liberalism" (*laissez faire*). Collectivism, Mr. Lippmann believes, is inherently incompatible with free political institutions or representative government, militaristic and inefficient.

Having to his satisfaction demolished the "collectivists," Mr. Lippmann turns his attention to exposing the theoretical and material mistakes of the nineteenth century "latter-day liberals" (including our Supreme Court from 1870 onwards), generally known nowadays as conservatives. He

argues that theirs has been a perversion of bona fide liberal (that is, "classical") economic theory. Adam Smith's discovery that the "wealth of nations proceeds from the division of labor in widening and therefore freer markets" is not synonymous with *laissez faire*. That the two were ever confused was a grievous error. The "latter-day liberals" (in company with Karl Marx) went awry in "identifying the existing laws of property with the new mode of production," in conceiving that the "status quo was a liberal society completely achieved." "Liberal" thinkers got up a "dogmatic blind alley in which their doctrines forbade them to trust their sympathies or entertain the notion that man's lot could be improved." Progressives have been, naturally, repelled by such grisly doctrine. Most of them, unfortunately, when presented with a choice between the statism of this so-called liberalism and the hopeful philosophy of collectivism, were not long in casting their lot with the latter.

There is, according to Mr. Lippmann, a third alternative which has been neglected: The true faith liberalism which is set forth in this essay. In Mr. Lippmann's liberal state (the "good society"), the power and duty of the state to intervene would be actively recognized, but production of goods and services and the allocation of capital and labor would be governed by the forces of the open market. The market would have to be an "honest and free" market; and the state would take every step necessary to make it so. Indeed, the true function of the liberal state would be to make the markets free and honest—in a word, to insure fair competition. Fraud would be stringently prohibited, and business promoters strictly regulated. Monopolies which exist only because of favorable statutes would be dismantled; holding companies would be closely restricted; and corporate law would be renovated "so as to prevent business from becoming any bigger than it can become in the test of the market." Corporations would not be allowed to reinvest their excess earnings in their own business, but would be forced into the market for any new capital they needed. Social controls would be instituted in order to "keep the real savings and the real investments of the community equal to each other." Money would be managed, and capital made more mobile. Measures would be instituted to equalize bargaining rights of various economic groups and individuals (for example, measures to avoid what Lippmann calls "necessitous bargaining," as by the farmer with a perishable crop). Cooperatives and labor organizations would be fostered, within limits. A redistribution of wealth would modify the excesses of poverty and riches. Tax policies would force hoarded wealth into public investments. Unearned incomes would be heavily taxed or confiscated. Some of the profits accruing from technological improvements would be segregated by the state to relieve and tide over the victims of that progress. The "people's patrimony" and the "people's estate" would be conserved and developed. The state would make large investments in eugenics, education, recrea-

tion, conservation, flood control, reclamation, etc., and would even be allowed to zone rural lands (p. 213).

This recital sounds as though Mr. Lippmann might himself have become tainted with "collectivist" heresy. Mr. Lippmann, however, is at constant pains to remind the reader that free competition—as opposed to general "planning"—remains the keystone of the Lippmann arch. As the "good society" flowered, public functions would be increasingly carried out by subordinate corporate bodies, which themselves would form a part of the competitive order. The state would assume evermore an essentially judicial role, for the "legislative function is only a more generalized form of the judicial." The "solution of social problems" would be sought "by the readjustment of private rights, rather than by public administration" (p. 282). For example—"If the people wish to regulate a social evil—let us say, excessive drinking— . . . the problem of social control is to devise means by which the sober man can . . . bring the drunkard into court and . . . obtain reparation if the accusation can be proved" (p. 291). But Mr. Lippmann does not tell us how the traffic in narcotic drugs, for example, or the ills of recurring agricultural overproduction can be regulated by lawsuits.

The busy reader of this *Review* who would like to look further into "The Principles of the Good Society," but who has not the time or inclination for a complete perusal, is recommended to chapters VI, VII, XI, and XIII, entitled, respectively, "Planning in Peace for an Economy of Abundance," "Gradual Collectivism," "The Agenda of Liberalism," and "The Government of a Liberal State." These give a fairly good summary of Mr. Lippmann's ideas on political economy, though they do not include certain canny observations on representative government in chapter XII, remarks on internationalism in chapter XIV, political theory in chapter XV, or the declaration of humanistic faith in chapter XVII, which are also part and parcel of Lippmannism.—HERMAN WALKER, Jr.

Two Decades of Farm Debt

FARM mortgage debt, a new Department of Agriculture bulletin¹ shows, increased from \$3,320,470,000 in 1910 to \$7,857,700,000 at the beginning of 1930, a sum which had reached \$9,469,000,000 in 1928. Pointing to the importance of the foreclosure liquidation during the period from 1930 to 1935, a 17-percent decrease in such indebtedness was reported during these 5 years and the summary estimates that by January 1, 1937, farm-mortgage indebtedness had been further reduced to \$7,254,821,000.

¹ A Graphic Summary of Agricultural Credit. U. S. Department of Agriculture Misc. Pub. 268. September 1938.

Living Standards North and Southwest

THE average value of family living in 850 open-country Lake States families—the value of goods and services consumed per family—was \$1,031 in 1935, a joint Bureau of Agricultural Economics-Farm Security Administration study¹ of 10 counties in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota has found. For the village families studied the value was \$851. Approximately 60 percent of the total value of family living of the rural families was purchased; the village families, on the other hand, purchased more than 88 percent of all goods and services consumed.

An average of 26 percent of the total value of family living in rural areas, it was found, was used for housing and maintenance, compared with 28 percent in the villages. Food represented 43 percent of the total value of living of the open-country families, 60 percent of which was produced on the farms. For the village families food represented 36 percent, 88 percent of which was purchased. Village families spent an average of \$45 for health, births and deaths, while farm families spent approximately \$6 less for the same purposes. The open-country families spent an average of \$97 to maintain an automobile, the village families \$66.

A definite relationship was found between the size of the farm enterprise and the total value of family living. During 1935, 44 percent of the farm operators had supplementary occupations, principally in jobs requiring unskilled labor.

While levels of living cannot be pictured with finality in dollars and cents, instructive contrasts may be found in another study, "Standards of Living in an Indian-Mexican Village and on a Reclamation Project."²

This is a similar report in the same series, but the groups studied are so different from those embraced in the Lake States report as to afford a revealing opportunity for comparative analysis.

The study reveals that the average total value of family living for the 37 Indian-Mexican families was \$347 and for the 65 Oregon-California families it was \$2,843, while for those in the Great Lakes cut-over area the figures reported as inadequate are \$1,031 for open-country families and \$851 for village families.

¹ Social Research Report XIII. Loomis, Lister, and Davidson. B. A. E. and F. S. A. September 1938.

² Social Research Report XIV. C. P. Loomis and O. E. Leonard. B. A. E. and F. S. A. August 1938.

{√ For your attention

- √ "GETTING AT THE BOTTOM OF OKLAHOMA'S LANDLORD-TENANT PROBLEM." *Extension Service Review*. 9 (11) 162. (U. S. D. A., Wash., D. C.) November 1938.

Conclusions reached by 3,500 Oklahoma farm landlords, tenants, farm women, bankers, businessmen, and tenancy specialists on problems relating to farm tenancy, discussed by them at the first State-wide landlord-tenant day held as a special feature of the annual Oklahoma farmers week.

- √ "BIBLIOGRAPHY ON SOIL EROSION AND SOIL AND WATER CONSERVATION." S. H. Gaines. U. S. D. A. Misc. Pub. 312. *Superintendent of Documents*, Wash., D. C., 60 cents. October 1938.

An extensive list of references to published material on soil erosion and soil and water conservation is offered in this bibliography. Its primary purpose is to provide authors, subject-matter specialists and students with a medium for determining what popular and scientific material has been written by others.

- √ "AGRICULTURAL PLANNING AND THE AGRICULTURAL ECONOMIST." O. V. Wells. *Journal of Farm Economics*. XX (4) 753. *American Farm Economic Association*, Menasha, Wisconsin. November 1938.

Agricultural planning, the author says, hinges first on recognition by farmers that a particular situation needs to be remedied, or a particular line of action to be encouraged. The second step is recognition of farmers' demands by editors, agricultural workers, State and national officers and others interested in the agricultural field. The third step calls for discussion of the problem by farmers and their representatives to formulate a program of action. The cooperation and coordination of all three groups of agricultural economists—academicians, reformers, and administrators—is needed in the development of any agricultural program, Mr. Wells concludes.

- √ "NEW USES FOR COUNTY ZONING: THE JEFFERSON COUNTY, WISCONSIN, ORDINANCE." J. M. Albers. *Land Resources Department of Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics*. XIV (4) 460...337 E. Chicago Avenue, Chicago, Ill. November 1938.

Until recently, county zoning in Wisconsin was confined largely to the northern cut-over counties, but the soundness of providing some plan for future standards in county development has been responsible within the last 2½ years for the advancement of county planning and zoning measures in several southeastern Wisconsin regions of high agricultural and some industrial development. Jefferson County is the first outside of Milwaukee to adopt a zoning ordinance. Among the provisions of this ordinance, as discussed here, is a regulation of flood-plain zoning, something not heretofore found in Wisconsin ordinances.

- ✓ "REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RURAL AND AGRICULTURAL ZONING," NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON PLANNING. *Minneapolis, Minnesota. June 20-22, 1938.*

Traces the development and describes the problems of rural zoning, with special emphasis on experience in Wisconsin.

- ✓ "PROBLEMS AND PROCEDURES IN RURAL ZONING." *Virgil Hurlburt, Pennsylvania Planning and Zoning III (2) 6. Pennsylvania State Planning Board.*

Activities on which information is at present available indicate that the more dramatic and immediate appeal of zoning may tend to obscure the need for preceding zoning with careful and comprehensive community planning, the foreword suggests.

- ✓ "THE PEOPLE AND THE LAND." *Proceedings of the Twentieth American Country Life Conference, Manhattan, Kansas. University of Chicago Press. June 1938.*

Among the addresses printed in full are Conservation of Human Resources, by Miss G. E. Frysjer; The People on the Land, by Dwight Sanderson; The Importance of Tenure to the People on the Land, by F. D. Farrel; and The Future of the Great Plains, by W. M. Jardine.

- ✓ "OUR LAND POLICY TODAY." *L. C. Gray. The Cattleman XXV (2) 11. Fort Worth, Texas. July 1938.*

Our land policy represents "the confluence of many small streams, each springing from a separate source, which have in the course of their development proceeded toward an inevitable juncture and unification," the author asserts. "They have not all as yet been joined together, but they have for the most part come in sight of each other, and it is evident to the realistic observer that a further meeting of waters is only a short distance ahead." After tracing the development of land policy, the article points out the present emphasis on development of methods whereby sound use of private as well as public lands may be achieved, and on the existence of a public interest in the private ownership of land.

- ✓ "THE IMPORTANCE OF TENURE TO THE PEOPLE ON THE LAND." *F. D. Farrell. Rural America XVI (4) 7. April 1938.*

Character of land tenure influences land use and in turn affects profoundly the rural community's social and economic welfare. With this premise, the article stresses the necessity of a strong sense of security, a sense of permanence, and a reverence for the earth as basic in satisfactory land tenure. Terms should be financially practicable for occupants of the land, period of tenure should be long, and ultimate ownership by the occupants should be possible.

- ✓ "CONSTRUCTIVE MEASURES DEALING WITH THE SOUTH'S POPULATION PROBLEMS." *Carl C. Taylor. Address to Southern Sociological Society, Chattanooga, Tennessee. B. A. E., U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1938.*

The author suggests four general types of adjustment: Promotion of balanced farming or "live-at-home" farming; expansion of manufacturing processes; encouragement of combined farm and industrial enterprises; guided relocation of surplus popu-

lation both for agriculture and industry. Foreseeing ultimate resumption of population flow to industrial centers, he points out that unguided migration has not proved satisfactory and that "increase in the mechanization and commercialization of farming will multiply the problems of population adjustment." Adjustment should mean as much live-at-home farming as practicable, as much manufacturing expansion as the South itself may manage, as many combined farm and industrial enterprises as natural resources and technological development permit, and relocation of as much of the population as careful study and wise planning dictate.

- ✓ "SETTLER RELOCATION: A DESCRIPTION OF THE MINNESOTA PLAN." A. D. Wilson. *Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics*. XIV (4) 402. (337 E. Chicago Avenue, Chicago, Ill.) November 1938.

In describing results of the Minnesota relocation project, the author outlines the adjustments of human beings and of land developed as result of the Federal Government's purchase of approximately 100,000 acres of submarginal lands in two conservation areas of the State. Mr. Wilson believes settler relocation is feasible, is needed, and can be accomplished on a sound basis. He also feels that, with a practical plan of operation, the cooperation of settlers, schools, and county officials, can be enlisted. The author's survey indicates that no person or legitimate interest has been injured by the relocation project and that taxing units have benefited.

- ✓ "DISTRESS TRANSFERS OF FARM REAL ESTATE." *State Summaries of Data from Selected Counties*. Bureau of Agricultural Economics. September 1938.

State summaries of basic data from selected counties, giving the total volume of farm real estate acquired by various types of buyers through distress transfers during the 15-year period following 1921, for 40 States. Data for shorter periods are presented for 7 States.

- ✓ "REGIONALISM—A METHOD OF PLANNING." *Pennsylvania Planning* 3 (5) 3. Pennsylvania State Planning Board, 928 Third St., Harrisburg, Pa. September 1938.

The importance of regional planning of activities extends from the local community to the national and even the world level, according to this paper. Further regional definition of a local unit indicates the direction of planning as to specific interests of the community in common with other communities.

- ✓ "SOIL DEFENSE IN THE NORTHEAST." G. K. Rule. *U. S. D. A. Farmers' Bulletin* 1810. Government Printing Office, 15 cents. 1938.

Although evidences of soil losses are touched upon, this discussion deals largely with measures of soil control employed on farms within project areas of the Soil Conservation Service and on farms in areas where C. C. C. workers have been assigned to erosion control activities.

- ✓ "FEDERAL AND STATE ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH LAND USE IN TENNESSEE." *Bulletin* 12. Tennessee State Planning Commission, Nashville, Tenn. (50 cents.) 1938.

The second annual release concerning Federal and State properties in Tennessee and the organizations which own or operate them. It is intended primarily as a reference source to assist the listed agencies in cooperating with one another and in coordinating their activities.

- ✓ "ANNUAL EMPLOYMENT CYCLE OF THE FARM LABOR HOUSEHOLD." *Landis and Wakefield. Washington State College Rural Sociology Series in Farm Labor, No. 2. Pullman, Washington. July 1938.*

Examines and discusses month-by-month employment of men, women, and children in Yakima Valley, Wash., and the wages received for agricultural and non-agricultural labor. Studies indicate the employment of 33,000 full-time workers in the peak of the hop season in September and 10,000 to 12,000 during the October apple harvest, with many peak season laborers being drawn from outside areas.

- ✓ "MIGRATORY FARM LABOR AND THE HOP INDUSTRY ON THE PACIFIC COAST." (*With special application to problems of the Yakima Valley, Washington.*) *Reuss, Landis and Wakefield. Washington State College Bulletin 363. (Rural Soc. Series in Farm Labor No. 3.) Pullman, Washington. August 1938.*

Hop labor alone in the Yakima Valley is the theme, with particular relation to life in hop camps, obtaining of work, social and economic characteristics of the workers, and with suggestions for improvement of conditions.

- ✓ "COLORADO FARM AND RANCH POPULATION CHANGES IN 1937." *A. F. Larson. Colo. Exp. Station mimeo. release 9779-38. Ft. Collins, Colo. August 1938.*

The high mobility of an important section of Colorado's farm population is demonstrated in this survey. Problems of adjustment for individuals and groups which this mobility causes are discussed and the importance of knowing the nature and location of farm population changes stressed.

- ✓ "AN INTRODUCTION TO AMERICAN FORESTRY." *S. W. Allen. (U. of Michigan.) McGraw-Hill Book Co., American Forestry Series. 330 W. 42nd St., N. Y. C. \$3.50.*

A general text for beginning classes, this offers a clear, accurate, and readable treatment of forests and explains, with illustrations, how they are made to sustain their services to mankind. Recent developments and examples of practice are emphasized.

- ✓ "AGRARIAN REORGANIZATION IN THE SOUTH." *Calvin B. Hoover. Journal of Farm Economics. XX (2) 474-481. The American Farm Economic Association, 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wis. May 1938.*

The chief aim of agrarian reorganization in the South, Mr. Hoover indicates, is to increase the relatively low standard of living and to decrease the high cost of tenancy. Two principal solutions are offered—collective farms and small owner-operated farms. He concludes that collective farms offer no real solution, while a program to encourage ownership of small farms offers genuine possibilities.

- ✓ "DIRECTORY OF REGION, COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL PLANNING ORGANIZATION." *Division of State Planning, Albany, N. Y., 1938.*

A complete directory of planning organizations in the State of New York to March 1, 1938, with a supplement on zoning for cities, villages, and towns.

- √ "ANNUAL REPORT FOR YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 1937," of the *Land Settlement Association, Ltd., Broadway Bldgs., Broadway, Westminster S. W. 1., England.*

Spurred by widespread unemployment in England in 1934, the Land Settlement Association initiated a program of settling unemployed men on the land, training them for various types of agriculture, and providing capital and supervision until the settlers could manage for themselves. The report describes progress on full-time settlements, part-time group holdings, and cottage homesteads.

- √ "STUDY OF RURAL HOUSING." *Deane G. Carter. Arkansas Experiment Station. Bulletin 364. Fayetteville, Ark. June 1938.*

Analyzes a study of more than 200 farm homes in 67 Arkansas counties, which were built with a contribution of home labor. Average annual income of cases studied was \$785, the median being \$550; cash expenditure for housing averaged \$750, with a median of \$500. About 70 percent of these houses, it is shown, were built without plans other than those prepared by the owner, the remaining 30 percent using some type of planning service.

- √ "RECENT PROGRESS IN THE ENACTMENT OF RURAL ZONING ENABLING LEGISLATION." *Herrman Walker, Jr. Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics. XIV (3) 333. August 1938.*

In 1937 and early 1938, the period covered by this study, a variegated body of legislation added moderately to the rural territory subject to zoning, the more material advances being made in the East. Evidence is presented that the rural zoning idea is becoming more diffused. Substantial progress is seen in the idea of distinctly rural zoning.

- √ "TEXAS FARM TENURE ACTIVITIES." *C. Horace Hamilton. The Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics. Vol. XIV, No. 3. August 1938.*

The need for significant adjustments in present farm leasing arrangements is stressed in this report of farm tenure improvement activities in Texas. It also indicates present research activities and proposed lines of action to eliminate principal maladjustments.

Surplus of Rural Youth

THERE are too many young people on American farms, the W. P. A. reports . . . Due to the surplus, young persons on farms now cannot support themselves comfortably in agriculture . . . Between 1920 and 1930 an average of 2,000,000 farm youths migrated to cities, but the migration rate has declined sharply since 1930 . . . It is estimated that nearly 1,000,000 will migrate to cities between 1930 and 1940, leaving a surplus of more than 1,000,000 still on the farms.

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